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ULTRASONIC RESEARCH IN THE USSR AND HUNGARY
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ULTRASONIC RESEARCH IN THE USSR AND HUNGARY

Lecture delivered by Paul Gregus at the meeting of the Debrecen section of the Eotvos Lorand Physical Society on 13 April 1951

The author presents a very good survey of work performed in ultrasonic research, but much of the report seems to have been taken from Der Ultraschall by Ludwig Bergmann, translated into English under the title Ultrasonics and Their Scientific and Technical Applications, published by Bu Ships, Navy Department, as Nav Ships 900,167. However, the author also refers to some of his own research, as well as recent trends in Soviet work.⁷

The catastrophe of the Titanic gave rise to experiments for ^{detecting} ~~signaling~~ icebergs moving under the surface of water. At first, so-called sound organs of various types were built which emitted under-water sound signals from the bottoms of the vessels and the echo reverberating from the iceberg was used to determine the distance. The experiments failed, however, mainly ^{because} ~~due to the fact that~~ the sounds produced were too weak.

The problem remained dormant until Germany introduced submarine warfare on a large scale during the first world war. The task was the same, namely, how to discover the presence of an object under the surface of water from a great distance. The navies of Britain and France grappled with the problem, but succeeded in solving it only after the Russian Kilovsky (1) joined in the effort.

Kilovsky's theory was to reverse the piezo-electric effect discovered by the Curies in 1880 to produce high-frequency ultrasonic ^{vibrations} ~~emissions~~; and in cooperation with the French Langevin he laid the foundation of a method which has been the basis of all equipments used for this purpose up to the present. Kilovsky died during the war and the equipment was subsequently perfected by Langevin (2). Kilovsky's theory opened a new chapter in ultrasonic research and the object of this article is to discuss the work of Soviet scientists in this field.

Serious theoretical, as well as practical, significance attaches to Sokolov's discovery published in 1929 (3), according to which quartz mosaic does not vibrate ~~as a~~ in the same way as a single quartz plate. Sokolov employed ~~Langevin's quartz-mosaic sound generator~~ ^{in his experiments}. In essence, the Langevin sound generator consists of quartz plates of identical thickness and shape placed between two steel plates. Since the speed of sound in quartz and steel is practically identical, the whole system vibrates as one piece of quartz with a thickness of $2d + d'$. Sokolov found that the surface vibration amplitude is widely different at different points. When various points with identical amplitudes are connected an arrangement is obtained represented in Figure 1. It follows that the sound space formed by a radiating head ^{is not of uniform} ~~does not possess a homogeneous intensity,~~

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a fact which must be taken into consideration in experiments.

In measuring the relative intensity of sound, a ^{sound-pressure} frequency meter ^{described} published by Malov and Rshvkin in 1932 (4) represents another step forward in simplifying this technique. The instrument consists of a thin aluminum lever rotating on a horizontal axis and is ~~equipped on its lower part~~ ^{attached to its lower end} with a small plate sensitive to sound vibrations. The deflection of the lever, extending downward into the sound space under examination, may be read on a calibrated scale. In 1933³ Malov pointed out (5) that the energy distribution of ultrasonic ^{waves} ~~sounds~~ in liquids may be easily determined, even for small intensities, by means of a resistance ^{thermometer} consisting of a 1.5-centimeter long and 15 ~~micron~~ ^{cm} thick ~~red-hot~~ iron wire. In 1935, Sokolov recommended (6) that a properly ground ~~Sigmet~~ ^{Rochelle salt} crystal, which is 150 times more sensitive than the quartz indicators previously used, should be employed as an ultrasonic sound ~~indicator~~ ^{receiver}.

Szalay performed pioneering work in 1934 (7) in measuring the speed of ultrasonic ~~sound~~ ^{vibrations} in electrolytes and the compressibility of electrolytes. His results were confirmed and further developed by Pasinsky in a paper published in 1938 (8), in which Pasinsky showed that compressibility depends only to a slight extent on the ion radii. Perosorov arrived at a similar conclusion in 1940 (9).

In measuring the ^{attenuation} ~~absorption~~ of ultrasonic sound in liquids the intensity of the sound wave is measured at several points of its path directly or indirectly. If the sound wave is not homogeneous, or the source ~~of sound~~ shows even a slight instability in intensity, the measurement is ^{un} ~~in~~ dependable. This uncertainty was avoided by Korolev (10,11) by coupling the measurement with Toepler's simple ^{Schlieren} ~~slit~~ method. The picture of the ^{a traveling} ~~moving~~ wave shows, in this method, ^{a periodic} ~~increasing~~ ^{brightening} which increases with increasing clarity in the direction of the wave proportionate to the intensity of the sound at a given point. By means of photometric methods, the observer ^{can} ~~is in a position~~ to measure the difference in intensity and the sound absorption coefficient between the two points. It is, of course, necessary to use as small sound intensities as possible, because sound intensity is proportionate to the ^{thus} ~~deflection~~ ^{diffacted} of light only at small sound amplitudes.

Sound absorption measurements in ^{solutions} ~~mixed liquids~~ were made by Gurevich and Mikhailov (12-17), permitting important conclusions as to the structure of liquids. The measurements of emulsions and suspensions made by Vladimirovsky and Galani in 1939 (18) solved the problem of sound absorption in a sound space in which the suspended particles do not participate in the movement of the sound space. The ^{experimental} ~~empirical~~ absorption values deviated, however, considerably from the values calculated on the basis of classical theory. The ^{experimental} ~~empirical~~ values were always greater

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values
than the ~~values~~ derived from theory. To clarify the problem, Gorodetsky per-
formed measurements and calculations in 1940 (19). He found that the dispersion
of ultrasonic ^{waves} ~~sounds~~ in ~~the~~ liquids is the cause for the discrepancy between the
two values. He even discovered a connection between the dispersion of ultrasonic
sounds and light.

The property of ultrasonic sounds to modulate light was used by Tumerman
and Simanovsky (2) to construct a fluorometer capable of determining ~~by a bell~~ the
(for the cessation of any kind of) ~~time required by any luminescent phenomenon.~~ Such decay periods
The time required to operate the
bell is of the order of 10^{-9} sec. The instrument operates as follows (Figure 1):
Quartz Q_1 is ~~induced~~ ^{caused} to vibrate at frequency N , which modulates the light originating
in source B in the well-known manner ^{with} by a frequency $2N$. The liquid under exam-
ination is in vessel F and is illuminated by the modulated light. The luminescent
light rays become parallel after leaving lens L_1 and subsequently pass through
quartz Q_2 which likewise has a vibrating frequency N . The sound wave is then
microphotographed. Both quartz plates are fed from the same ^{oscillator} generator. There are
two ~~prerequisites for determining the time required to ring the bell.~~ ^{photographs are required to} decay
in the ^{in the} ~~sound wave~~ is photographed on the partly ^{exposed} covered photographic plate by means of
fluorescent light. Next, the other part of the plate is ^{exposed} covered and, after sub-
stituting a mirror or white ^{screen} ~~shade~~ for the fluorescent substance, ^{another} picture is
taken. The ^{decay} time to ~~operate the bell~~ required by the fluorescent light may be cal-
culated from the displacement of the ^{sound} ~~wave~~ ^{images} on the two photographic plates
on the basis of the modulating frequencies. ^{is known} The same authors also made use of the
light-modulating effect of ultrasonic ~~sounds~~ ^{waves} to determine the speed of light in
various media.

In investigating the light-modulating effect of ultrasonic ^{waves} ~~sounds~~ Karisimenov
pointed out in 1937 (21) that this phenomenon may be utilized in television and
^{communications} light telephony instead of the Kerr cells. A great advantage of this process in
comparison with the Kerr cells consists in the simplicity of the optical equipment
and the ^{high efficiency} ~~great strength of light~~. In contrast to the high ~~tension and power re-~~
quired by the Kerr cells (100 watts), ^{voltages and powers are} a much lower ~~tension is~~ sufficient (20 volts
and 0.05 - 0.2 watts). Another advantage is that the equipment may also be used
for ultraviolet ^{light} ~~areas~~, whereas the nitrobenzene ^{used} for ^{to fill} charging the Kerr cells is
not suitable for this purpose. The ~~dis~~advantage of the process is that it is suit-
able only for frequencies determined by the quartz which serves as sound source.

As early as 1929 (3), in investigating the speed of ultrasonic sound in solids,
Sokolov was the first to point out that, since ~~the propagation~~ the propagation
of ultrasonic ~~sounds~~ ^{waves} in substances containing cracks is much ^{poorer} ~~worse~~ than in homo-

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geneous solids, ultrasonic ^{waves} sound could be employed for the examination of industrial materials. The problem deserved particular attention, since it was theoretically shown that defects of the order of 10^{-6} could be detected by this method. This method represented a ^{considerable improvement over} ~~serious advantage in comparison to~~ X-ray, which can detect a defect only when it amounts to 1.5 - 2 percent of the thickness of the material examined.

Sokolov published the first results of his experiments in 1934 (23) and as early as 1935 he described a practical equipment suitable for industry (23, 24). The equipment operated on the following principle (Figure ² A): The sound source consists of a quartz-mosaic plate placed between steel plates "a" and "b". The upper plate "a" is screwed into vessel "c" as cover. The surface of "a" is covered with a thin layer of mercury which is kept from dripping down by skirt "d". The sound is transmitted by the mercury to the material "e" under investigation. On the other side of the material under investigation, facing the sound source, a vessel with a plan^e parallel bottom is placed, containing oil or benzol^{um} at a height of a few millimeters. The parallel light rays emanating from source "F" fall on the surface of the liquid at an angle and are reflected upon a screen. Depending on the intensity of the sound waves which penetrate the material under investigation, light spots of different structure appear on the screen. From this so-called sonogram, conclusions may then be drawn as to the interior homogeneity of the material investigated. Larger pieces are pulled through ~~the vessel~~ in a vessel filled with oil a few centimeters under the surface while, at the same time, ultrasonic waves are transmitted through them from below. When the surface is illuminated as above, similar sonograms are obtained.

The optical procedure outlined in the foregoing serves, however, merely ~~for~~ general informative purposes. Exact location of the defect can be arrived at only by an examination point by point. Sokolov also worked out a piezo²-electric ultrasonic indicator for this purpose with the ^{Rockelle} ~~employment of the Serget~~ crystal ^{mentioned above}. This instrument operates as follows:

The piezo-electric crystal plate begins to vibrate mechanically when sound waves having a frequency corresponding to its own fall upon it. As a result of the mechanical deformation due to piezo²-electric effect, electric charges appear on the surface. The algebraic sign of these ^{electric} charges changes periodically ^{emf's} according to the sound frequency. It is possible to indicate the alternating ~~tensions~~ by various

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methods. Because the ^{voltage generated} ~~reaction~~ provided by the receiving crystal is proportional to the amplitude produced by the sound wave, while the latter in turn is a function of the sound intensity, the change in intensity caused by inhomogeneity in the substance under investigation can be demonstrated. This piezo-electric effect was used by Sokolov also in the ultrasonic microscope published in 1950, which not only indicates inhomogeneity but also locates it exactly and permits it to be photographed.

In essence, this procedure consists in covering the far side of the quartz plate with a layer sensitive to light, which is illuminated by ultraviolet rays. Under the effect of the ultraviolet rays, photoelectrons ^{liberated} ~~are~~ are detached from the plate, are subsequently accelerated by electric fields, and are ultimately projected through a magnetic and electric lens system on a screen. Since the ultrasonic field creates a piezo-electric charge on the quartz plate in a distribution corresponding to the object under investigation, the resulting charges liberate a larger or smaller number of electrons from the plate. Since, therefore, the photo-electric emission corresponds to the piezo-electric charge distribution produced by the ultrasonic field, the picture of the object investigated appears magnified on the screen. (25)

The ultrasonic waves are transmitted in various substances at speeds characteristic of the respective substances. Sokolov made use of this phenomenon in 1946 (26) to use measurement by ultrasonic speed for the investigation of chemical processes, as well as for the determination of the mechanism of chemical processes, which ~~it~~ ^{was} was impossible or very difficult to investigate by other methods. The papers published by Gorbachev (27) and Severny (28) made important contributions to the clarification of the coagulating effect of ultrasonic waves. Our research group, for example, was able, on the basis of these investigations, to regain the cement dust escaping through the dust stacks of the Tatabanya Cement Works by acoustic methods. (29)

Levshin and Rahevkin showed in 1937 (30) and Polotsky in 1938 (31) that the ^{in liquids} ~~luminescent~~ phenomena produced by ultrasonic waves can probably be explained by the fact that ultrasonic waves create electric charges. The theory of the phenomena was published by Fraenkel in 1940 (32) and was further developed by Natoson (33). They distinguish two kinds of cavitation, namely, equilibrium and breakage cavitation. The first is observed when the gas pressure of the liquid ^{decreases} ~~is released~~ slowly, ^{thus form} ~~white~~ spheric cavities are produced. The second kind is produced by a quick change in

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pressure as, for example, under the effect of ultrasonic waves. It causes a break in the liquid and ^{the} formation of lens-shaped cavities. Electric charges are released only under the latter circumstances. In the light of these investigations Solovieva's paper (34) may be understood, reporting that under the ^{action of 300-400 kcs} effect of an ultrasonic wave, of ^{dilute} 300 kcs ferrosulphate solution is transformed into ferrisulphate.

This article led me to the thought of transforming potassium ferro-cyanide into potassium ferri-cyanide by oxydation by means of ultrasonic waves and to employ the resultant ^{turning blue} blue color reaction to indicate ultrasonic wave intensity. I performed my experiments with 800 and 1,600 kcs. Although the process was unsuitable for the measurement of intensity, nevertheless it yielded interesting results. Thus, ~~on both~~ ^{at} on both frequencies I observed the formation of potassium ferro-cyanide proportionate ~~in amount~~ to the length of time of ~~the~~ ^{hydrocyanic} irradiation. At 1,600 kcs it was also possible to show the presence of ~~nitro-prusside~~ ^{hydrocyanic} ~~and hydrogen~~ acid. The latter phenomenon will be understood when consideration is given to the fact that, as a result of cavitation, the oxygen is activated and that in a dilute solution hydrogen peroxide, nitrogen oxide, and nitrogen dioxide are formed. The latter enter into ^{act} interreaction with water and as a result nitrous acid and nitric acid are formed, as was quantitatively shown by Polotsky in 1947 (35). ^{appearance of hydrocyanic} The ~~nitroprusside-hydrogen~~ acid is obviously the result of the ^{formation of} nitric acid.

The fact that organic chemical compounds containing a benzene ring lose their property to absorb ultraviolet light is ascribed by Elpiner (36) to the cavitation effect of ultrasonic waves. I observed similar results in the visible spectrum during the investigation of dyes derived from benzene.

The property of ultrasonic waves to age wines and liqueur may likewise be explained by the ^{oxidizing} effect of these waves, as shown by Protopopov's patent published in 1938(37). According to this patent, irradiation during 2 - 30 minutes at frequencies of 100 - 300 kcs leads to an effect as if the alcoholic beverage had been aged for several years. This thought was further developed by the Fuhrer-Tarnoczy-Tari patent, which accomplished the same effect in all kinds of alcoholic products during a few seconds.

The emulsion-forming effect of ultrasonic waves - the practical application of which was pointed out by Popov as early as 1936 (38) - ^{the medium} is likewise a product of the cavitation effect of these waves in ^{space}. In Popov's view the dispersion, as well as stability, of margarine emulsions produced by ultrasonic waves is far

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superior ^{than} ~~to these produced~~ by other methods.

Dispersion of solids in liquids - first shown by Rahevkin and Ostrovsky in 1935 (39) - is also based on the cavitation effect of ultrasonic waves. The lead, zinc, bismuth, and sulphur particles dispersed by them were of the order of 10^{-6} centimeter. They formed a true colloid solution showing a strong Tyndall effect. This method was further developed by Sheslyulinsky and Tumansky (40, 41) and later by Tumansky and Maximova (42) for the production of a dilute suspension of indant ^{hence} ~~red~~ dyes.

The dispersion effect of ultrasonic waves was used by Seliakov (43, 44) to improve the effectiveness of ammonia and hydrating ^{osculating} ~~hydrating~~ catalyzers.

Sokolov (45) was the first to call attention in 1935 to the fact that after being treated with ultrasonic waves, alloys show a lower melting point, and solidify quicker, and, at the same time, become finer grained.

In general, the ultrasonic waves accelerate the process of crystallization, as shown by numerous Soviet authors, among others by Altberg (46), Belinsky (47), and Berlaga (48). Kapustin's results (49) are of particularly great importance in this field. In this article he renders an account of ultrasonic effect on the crystallization of organic substances. The crystals thus obtained were much harder than those obtained without irradiation. He also showed that not only direct irradiation but also the vibration of the walls of the vessel accelerate crystallization and helps produce harder crystals.

This effect, together with the knowledge of ^h ~~reciprocity~~, led me to the assumption that the solidification of cement ~~could~~ could be accelerated by ultrasonic irradiation. I have performed experiments along this line with frequencies of 6 ^{Mc} ~~mc~~ and 4 ^{Mc} ~~mc~~ and obtained favorable results. All signs point to the fact that lower frequencies may produce even better results which may then be utilized in industry.

The results enumerated in the foregoing represent, of course, only a small part of Soviet ultrasonic research. I did not mention, for example, the ultrasonic effect on electric conductivity and ⁱⁿ numerous other physical, physico-chemical, and colloid-chemical investigations. My object was merely to point out the main research fields which are connected with Hungarian ultrasonic research. A special article should be written on Soviet biological, ^{serological} ~~serological~~, and other investigations in the field of hygiene. Due to limitation of space only two examples are given in the following.

Istomina and Ostrovsky (50) obtained by 5 minutes ^f ~~irradiation~~ irradiation 30 percent increase in the germinating property and yield of potatoes, while Davidov (51) obtained

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with 2 - 10 minutes of ^{dia}irradiation a 45 percent increase in the yield of sugar beet seeds. In other plants, ultrasonic irradiation resulted in ^ca ^ecolchicin-like effect, which was ^{observed}experienced also by Porpacz in 1948. Similar experiments are being currently conducted by Professor Daniel Feher at Sopron.

Another interesting result has been published by Elpiner (52). Vaccination by ultrasonic whooping-cough virus ~~which has been~~ inactivated by irradiation ~~with ultrasonic~~ ensures immunity to the disease. A similar effect was observed by Garay and Berenessik, namely, cancerogen ^{ous}matter loses its cancerogen ^{ous}property after ultrasonic irradiation.

It is impossible to ^{a complete}render account of Soviet ultrasonic research within the limits of a short article. However, it may be seen from the foregoing that the Soviets are leading in ultrasonic research. The Sokolov ultrasonic ^{research}brigade working in the ^PPhysical Institute of the ~~State~~ Eotvos Lorand University of Sciences is engaged in utilizing these Soviet experiences for the benefit of Hungary's national economy.

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